

3D'S FOR NEUROPATHIC PAIN - DIAGNOSIS, DRUGS AND DEVICES

Nischal Tyagi* and Radha Goel

I.T.S Paramedical College, Delhi –Meerut Road, Ghaziabad, Uttar Pradesh, India.

ABSTRACT

Today huge population worldwide is affected with the chronic debilitating neuropathic pain. A high level of dexterity is required for the diagnosis of neuropathic pain as it can develop gradually with time. Diagnosing and treating neuropathic pain is still a challenge to clinicians but if it is suspected, then various diagnostic screening tools such as neuropathic pain scale, Leeds assessment of neuropathic symptoms and signs, The neuropathic pain questionnaire, Douleur Neuropathique en four questions may be valuable. These verbal questionnaires afford valuable information to the clinician regarding the pain as neuropathic pain portrays some exclusive symptoms usually described as burning, painful, cold or electric shocks which may be coupled with tingling, numbness or itching. This review decisively examines the role of various mediators involved in transmission of neuropathic pain and highlights the potential therapeutic opportunities to arbitrate diagnosis and treatments of neuropathic pain.

Keywords: Nitric oxide, Bradykinins, Antidepressants, Antiepileptics.

INTRODUCTION

Neuropathic pain is lately redefined as pain arising as a direct consequence of a lesion or dysfunction of nervous system.¹ The control of neuropathic pain symptoms is always partial despite taking prescribed medications for pain and adverse effects associated to treatment frequently make it unbearable.² There are several etiologic causes of neuropathic pain which include infectious agents, trauma, metabolic diseases, neurodegenerative diseases and many others.³ Commonly observed symptoms in neuropathic pain include paresthasias, dysesthasias, hyperesthesia, hyperpathia, and allodynia. The neuropathic pain can be stimulus evoked, spontaneous, or can be a amalgamation of both.⁴ The symptoms in neuropathic pain are highly debilitating and deteriorate the quality of life of patient. The pathogenesis of neuropathic pain involves the interaction between the immune system and the nervous system and many mediators are also implicated in neuropathic pain which alters local homeostasis and impairs neuronal function.⁵ The treatment of neuropathic pain is initiated

by drugs but if they are incapable to control the symptoms then many other novel techniques can be used such as spinal cord stimulation, deep brain stimulation, peripheral nerve stimulation, percutaneous nerve stimulation, percutaneous neuromodulation therapy, electroalgesia, transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation, Transcutaneous Acupoint Electrical Stimulation, Interferential Current Therapy, Piezo-Electric Current Therapy, H wave therapy.⁶ This review article states the current diagnostic, pharmacologic treatments and devices used for neuropathic pain.

3 D's for neuropathic pain

1) Diagnosis

Neuropathic pain diagnosis starts with collecting detailed medical history of patient and examination of symptoms accompanied with scrupulous neurological and physical examination.⁷ Reviewing medical history provides insight into onset, site, distribution and possible cause of pain. Nature of pain (eg- allodynia, paresthasias, and hyperesthesia) should be diligently recorded. Since the diagnosis

of neuropathic pain relies largely on the manifestation of sensory abnormalities in the affected area. Several tools are devised for comprehensive diagnosis of neuropathic pain namely; Neuropathic pain scale (NPS), Leeds assessment of neuropathic symptoms and signs (LANSS), The neuropathic pain questionnaire (NPQ), Douleur Neuropathique en 4 questions (DNA), Pain DETECT and ID- pain.

- NPS (neuropathic pain scale) – It contains 10 items provides a reproducible assessment of the type of symptoms experienced by the patient which help the clinician to design the treatment regimen for the patient.⁸
- LANSS (Leeds assessment of neuropathic symptoms and signs) - contains 5 symptom items and two clinical examinations items. A score of 12 or above out of 24 suggests neuropathic pain. The LANSS has been tested and validated for its sensitivity and specificity ranging from 82% - 92% and 80% - 94% respectively.
- NPQ (neuropathic pain questionnaire) – It is composed of 12 items that include 10 related sensations and 2 related to affects. The precise form of NPQ maintained similar discriminative properties with only 3 items namely tingling, numbness, and increase in pain upon touching.
- DNA (Douleur Neuropathique en 4 questions) – It includes of total 10 items out of which 7 are related to symptoms and 3 with clinical assessment. It is easy to score and total score of 4 or more out of 10 indicates neuropathic pain
- Pain DETECT – It is a self reporting questionnaire with 9 items. It does not require any clinical examination. It has been translated to 22 languages and it is also available in English.
- ID- Pain – It includes of 5 sensory items and 1 item relating to presence of pain in joints. It does not require any clinical assessment.⁹

Inflammatory mediators involved in neuropathic pain

- Bradykinin- It is among the most potent sensitizing agents. It has been known that upon injecting bradykinin into human skin it produces a dose related pain and heat hyperalgesia which suggests that bradykinin is able

to excite and sensitise nociceptors to high temperature.¹⁰ Release of bradykinin further causes release of other neurotransmitters and mediators from immune cells such as calcitonin, substance P and acetylcholine and NGF, interleukins, tumour necrosis factor, prostaglandins, leukotrienes respectively.^{11, 12}

- Prostaglandins-(PG) are derivatives of arachidonic acid, which is released from membrane phospholipids. PGE₂ and PGI₂ are more powerful sensitizers than PGF_{2a}, PGD₂ or TxA₂.¹³ Most NSAIDs inhibit the production of prostaglandins through cyclooxygenase pathway. Blocking Cyclooxygenase reduces the excitation of neurones.¹⁴ Other than arachidonic acid prostaglandins can also be produced by lipoxygenases and cytochrome P450 epoxygenase.¹⁵ Link between COX-2 induced prostaglandin release and increased nociception in neuropathic pain has been shown by some studies.¹⁶⁻¹⁸
- Serotonin- Elevated levels of serotonin, or 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) is found in inflamed tissues, and is released mainly from mast cells and platelets¹⁹. Serotonin is capable of directly exciting neurones through 5-HT₃ receptor and Gq coupled 5-HT_{2A} receptors present in neurones.^{20, 21} Inflammatory pain was shown to be relieved by using 5-HT_{2A} antagonist.²²
- Neurotrophins-It includes nerve growth factor (NGF), brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and neurotrophin 3-5 which activate the tyrosine kinase-couples receptors. Neurotrophins are capable of imparting both short term and long term effects, phosphorylation of ion channels is responsible for short term effects and long-term changes are caused by changes in gene expression.^{23, 24} Injecting NGF causes a brisk and long lasting hyperalgesia.²⁵
- Nitric oxide - (NO) is produced in body by the nitric oxide synthases, and there exist three isoforms of nitric oxide, endothelial (eNOS), neuronal (nNOS) and inducible (iNOS). Nitric oxide is a short-lived inflammatory mediator and therefore generally produces local effects, but it can pass quickly through cell membranes and therefore often effects are seen in neighbouring cells of nitric oxide

producing cell. Noxious irritants or NO itself is capable of producing NO synthesizing enzymes.²⁶⁻²⁸ Inflammatory hyperalgesia is reduced by local inhibition of NO synthesis.²⁹

- Cytokines – These are tiny proteins expressed on the cell surface in precursor form, which can be cleaved to allow quick release, as a result of which they can diffuse to act on another cell. Originally name, interleukin (IL), derives from the fact many of them are produced by leukocytes and act on leukocytes, although they can also be produced by most cell types. Cytokines come in two opposite phenotypes; the pro-inflammatory (IL-1 β , TNF, IL-6, IL-15, IL-17, IL-18, and IFN- γ) and anti-inflammatory (IL-4, IL-10 and TGF- β). Furthermore, it is also apparent IL-1 β , TNF and IL-6 induce the production of each other through positive feedback mechanism and act synergistically to augment the signals of inflammation³⁰, which can lead to chronic inflammation if left untreated. Pro-inflammatory cytokines often cause algisia indirectly, through release of further mediators, such as NO and PGE₂, which sensitise nociceptors.³¹
- Calcium Channels -Transformation of calcium influx into the cytoplasm by voltage gated calcium channels affects neuronal excitability and promotes exocytosis of neuropeptides such as substance P and calcitonin gene related peptide from nociceptive neurones.^{32, 33} Till now, ten genes encoding voltage gated calcium channels have been identified and have been grouped into three families: Ca_v1. family (Ca_v1.1-1.4 corresponds to L-type current), the Ca_v2 family includes Ca_v2.1 (P/Q current), Ca_v2.2 (N-type current), Ca_v2.3 (R-type current) and the Ca_v3. (Ca_v3.1-3.3 corresponds to the T-type current).³⁴
- Sodium channels -They are thought to play a key role in numerous chronic painful neuropathies resulting from injury to the peripheral nerves. The voltage gated Na⁺ channels is composed of the family of nine structurally related α subunits (Nav1.1 to Nav1.9) which show distinct expression patterns and are associated with one or more accessory β subunits (β 1 to β 3).³⁵⁻³⁷ The sodium channels in injured nerves

exhibit different depolarization characteristics from undamaged nerves.^{38, 39} The transformed sodium channels have modified properties that contribute to hyperexcitability in the DRG, increased pain transmission, and sensitization.⁴⁰

2) Drugs employed in treatment of neuropathic pain

Treatment of neuropathic pain is still a challenge to clinicians as the neuropathic pain symptoms are not entirely controlled even after drug therapy. Except the prototype symptoms of NP there also exist several other emotional and psychological symptoms. During initiation of treatment the patient must be educated regarding neuropathic pain and significant side effects associated with the drug therapy this helps increase patient compliance. Neuropathic pain is generally unresponsive to NSAID therapy; however certain other pharmacological classes of drugs are found effective in controlling symptoms of NP these include antidepressants, antiepileptics, analgesics (opioids and NSAID'S) and local anaesthetics.⁴¹

Antiepileptics

There is a long history of using antiepileptic drugs for treatment of neuropathic pain, but they all have potential to cause adverse effects such as drowsiness, dizziness and ataxia. Gabapentin and pregabalin have been most extensively used in patients with diabetic neuropathy and post-herpetic neuralgia. These two drugs act by modifying the voltage-gated calcium channels of primary afferents thus interfere with the release of substance P, norepinephrine and the excitatory amino acid neurotransmitter glutamate.⁴²⁻⁴⁴ Antiepileptics are found effective on pain as well as on paresthesias and dysesthesias.⁴⁵ Newer drugs like Lamotrigine and topiramate have slightly different mechanisms of action which increases their spectrum of efficacy as compared to other standard antiepileptics. Lamotrigine acts by blocking sodium channels and reducing glutamate release. Topiramate also acts by blocking sodium channels and may also act on AMPA (amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl- 4-isoxalon)/kainate receptors.⁴⁶

Antidepressants

This has been widely recognized that antidepressants induce specific analgesic activity, which is mainly due to central inhibition of serotonin and noradrenaline reuptake which results in augmentation of the downward monoaminergic inhibitory mechanisms.⁴⁷ Tricyclic antidepressants have been extensively used to treat almost all types of neuropathic pain.⁴⁸ The selective norepinephrine and serotonin reuptake inhibitors duloxetine and venlafaxine are found valuable in controlling painful polyneuropathic pain.^{3, 48-49}

Local anaesthetics

Topical anaesthetics are safe to use and relieve pain that's why recommended in first line treatment of localised neuropathic pain such as postherpetic neuralgia.^{50, 51}

Lidocaine alleviates pain mainly by blocking sodium channels on peripheral afferent fibres without causing any numbness of the treated skin. The topical application lidocaine provides relief without a relevant systemic absorption thus it is widely used for localised peripheral neuropathic pain. Side effects of local application of lidocaine include erythema or rash.⁵²

Opioid and Tramadol

Opioid analgesics act as agonists postsynaptic and presynaptic opioid receptor. Tramadol also inhibits neuronal reuptake of serotonin and norepinephrine. The analgesic effect of opioids is comparable to tricyclic antidepressants. Long term opioid therapy is always associated with the risk of physical dependency and misuse or abuse which generally restricts their use.⁵³⁻⁵⁶ Opioids are used for treating pain which resistant to other drugs. Opioid therapy is initiated with lowest effective dose and up escalated gradually.⁵⁷

Analgesics

NSAID'S are usually unsuccessful in neuropathic pain treatment. NSAID'S therapy is accompanied with side effects so their dose is gradually increased to minimise the adverse effects and obtain better control over pain.⁵⁸

Botulinum Toxin

Botulinum toxin type A (BTX-A) is a new ray of hope for neuropathic pain sufferers when injected intradermally it relieves pain possibly by reducing neurogenic inflammation. The first evidence regarding the analgesic activity of BTX-A in focal neuropathy was shown in year 2008.⁵⁹ Upon single intradermal injection of BTX-A, subjects reported reduction in pain

severity during whole course of study (24 weeks), as well as decrease in brush-induced allodynia at 4 and 12 weeks after treatment was accounted but still there is a lot to be explored.^{60,61}

Herbal drugs

Ginkgo biloba

Ginkgo is obtained from the dried leaves of Ginkgo biloba Linn., belonging to the family Ginkgoaceae. According to a study Ginkgo biloba has decreased thermal hyperalgesia in a carrageenan induced inflammatory pain model. The positive effect of Ginkgo biloba extract in NP is primarily due to a combination of an antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and antagonistic action against platelet activating factor and also has a defensive effect against neurotoxicity induced by N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA).^{62, 63}

Panax ginseng

The biological source of Ginseng is the dried root of various species of Panax, like P.ginseng (Korean ginseng), P.japonica (Japanese ginseng), P. Notoginseng (Chinese ginseng) and P.quinquefolium (American ginseng), belonging to the family Araliaceae. A polyacetylenic compound, (9R, 10S)-epoxyheptadecan-4,6-diyne-3-one (EHD), isolated from ginseng extract. The mechanism by which ginseng provides relief in NP is through inhibition of voltage-gated Na⁺ channels in primary sensory neurons which have been widely implicated in the pathogenesis of NP sensitivity.⁶⁴

Emblca officinalis

The valuable constituents in E.officinalis are antioxidants such as Vitamin-C, flavanoids and tannins; they have free radical scavenging activity. Quercetin, a bioflavonoid is reported to alleviate neuropathic pain symptoms by inhibition of lipid peroxidation and restitution of various antioxidant enzymes.⁶⁵

Ocimum sanctum

Ocimum sanctum commonly known as 'Holy Basil' belongs to the family Labiatae, is widely known for its various therapeutic effects. The possible role by which it brings relief in NP is by decreasing the oxidative stress and calcium levels, which have been known to play significant role in pathogenesis and perception of NP.⁶⁶

Cannabis

Cannabis sativa contain a complex mixture of natural cannabinoids and other chemical compounds. The main psychoactive ingredient

of cannabis extract is D9tetrahydrocannabinol (THC). This is an agonist at the CB1 receptor, which is found at many sites within the central nervous system. Like the opioids, the cannabinoids modulate pain processing at multiple sites within the central nervous system.⁶⁷ Cannabinoids produce analgesia independently of opiates. Cannabinoid analgesia is well established in animal models of neuropathic pain but further studies on human subjects are required to demonstrate its efficacy.⁶⁸

Capsaicin

Capsaicin, the compound in chilli peppers that makes them taste hot. Topical creams with capsaicin are used to treat pain from postherpetic neuralgia and diabetic neuropathy (0.075% cream 3-4 times daily for eight weeks), osteoarthritis (0.025% cream four times daily), and rheumatoid arthritis. Capsaicin has also been used to treat pain due to pruritus, psoriasis, mastectomy, bladder disorders, and cluster headaches.⁶⁹

Curcuma longa

Curcumin is a polyphenol found in the dietary spice turmeric (*Curcuma longa* Linn.). It is extracted from dried rhizomes of the perennial herb, which is a member of the ginger family. Curcumin has been demonstrated to have a variety of biologic activities, including anti-inflammatory activities and anticancer properties. Curcumin is known to exert its action through inhibition of mitogen-activated protein kinases.⁷⁰

3) Devices

Neurostimulation therapy is increasingly being used to treat chronic neuropathic pain that is refractory to drug treatment. The neurostimulation techniques can be divided into noninvasive and invasive methods. The techniques discussed in this paper include the following: spinal cord stimulation, deep brain stimulation, peripheral nerve stimulation, percutaneous electrical nerve stimulation, percutaneous neuromodulation therapy, electroalgnesia, transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation, transcutaneous acupoint electrical stimulation, interferential current therapy, piezo-electric current therapy and H wave therapy.⁷¹

Spinal cord stimulation (SCS)

Spinal cord stimulation technique is used occasionally to ease the symptoms of neuropathic pain. The analgesic effects of spinal cord stimulation lasts for many hours after the stimulation has been stopped. The

long lasting pain relief is thought to result from modulation of neurotransmitter system at the dorsal horn.⁷² In this technique a lead is placed in the dorsal epidural space and connected with a subcutaneously implantable pulse generator (IPG). The cathode is situated between the area of dorsal median sulcus and the dorsal root entry zone. Upon stimulation current flows from cathode to anode. However, current flow chooses the path of lowest resistance and high electrical conductivity. Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) obviously has the lowest electrical resistivity which is followed by longitudinal white matter. CSF is responsible for conducting approximately 90% of the applied current.⁷³

Deep brain stimulation (DBS)

The foremost effort to treat pain using DBS⁷⁴ lead to the discovery of the gate control theory of pain transmission and the development of SCS.^{75, 76} Various deep brain structures that were targeted for inducing analgesia include sensory thalamus, posterior limb of the internal capsule, and the periventricular / gray matter. The possible mechanism by which DBS alleviate pain is perhaps dependent on the position of the stimulating electrode.⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹

Peripheral nerve stimulation (PNS)

The first use of PNS for alleviating refractory pain was reported over 30 yr ago by Wall and Sweet.⁸⁰ Up till now, due to high success rate of PNS it has been most widely accepted for treatment of neuropathic pain (e.g., posttraumatic neuropathy, diabetic neuropathy) when the nerve lesion is distal to the site of stimulation.⁸¹ The various advantages of peripheral nerve stimulation include easy surgical process, non-destructive and reversible when the patient turns the stimulator off.⁸²

Percutaneous electrical nerve stimulation (PENS)

PENS was indicated for the treatment of intractable pain associated with chronic low back pain syndrome, cancer, and other disorders causing persistent pain. Electrical stimulation of the spinal cord was carried out by percutaneous insertion of electrodes into the epidural space. Theoretically PENS is associated to both electroacupuncture (which involves electrical stimulation of percutaneously placed needle probes) and transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation (via cutaneous electrodes). PENS has the advantage of avoiding the resistance offered by the skin and efficiently delivers the electrical stimulus near to the peripheral nerve endings

positioned in the soft tissue, muscle and in the affected region.⁸³⁻⁸⁸

Transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation (TENS) and its various variants

In TENS there is transmission of electrical energy from an external stimulator to the peripheral nervous system through cutaneously placed conductive gel pads. TENS can be subclassified as :

- a. low-intensity (1–2 mA), high-frequency (50–100 Hz) TENS
- b. acupuncture-like high-intensity (15–20 mA), low-frequency (1–5 Hz).⁸⁹

Transcutaneous Acupoint Electrical Stimulation (TAES)

TAES is a variant of TENS therapy that involves applying cutaneous electrodes at classical Chinese acupoints and stimulating with alternating high- and low-frequency electrical current (“dense-disperse”).⁹⁰

Interferential Current Therapy (ICT)

Interferential Current Therapy (ICT) is another variant of TENS that uses the principle of amplitude modulation to decrease the discomfort of stimulating deeper tissues (e.g., muscle) when using transcutaneously applied electrical current. A combination of different stimulation frequencies are used (i.e., one fixed at 4 kHz and another within a variable range) to generate.⁹¹ frequencies between 4 and 250 Hz which are alleged to more effectively penetrate the soft tissues while producing less discomfort at the skin surface.⁹²

H-Wave Therapy (HWT)

HWT is also a type of electrical stimulation technique that causes direct, localized effect upon the conduction of peripheral nerves.⁹³ This technique was first used as a substitute to TENS for producing dental analgesia. Currently, it is indicated in the treatment of acute musculoskeletal injuries, postoperative pain, and also as a noninvasive form for producing local analgesia. Julka et al reported that transcutaneous H-wave therapy was found efficient in relieving symptoms in 76% of diabetic patients suffering with peripheral neuropathic pain.⁹⁴

Piezo-Electric Current Therapy (PECT)

PECT is currently an exploratory analgesic technique. PECT device produces a burst of 10 electrical pulses (five positive and five negative), each lasting 2–3 ms. Each electrical burst produced lasts for 50 to 250 ms (depending on the motor speed set) and generates a current of approximately 25 mA.

PECT application into skin produces a tolerable “pricking” pain sensation associated with a neurogenic inflammatory response which generally lasts for 3–4 h.⁹⁵

Motor cortex stimulation

In past few years MCS has evolved as a potential tool for the treatment of drug resistant neuropathic pain. This technique requires implantation of epidural electrodes over the motor strip. Electrodes are most commonly set up through a frontoparietal craniotomy or burr hole in the central area, carried out under general anaesthesia. This procedure is non-invasive and found effective in relieving trigeminal neuralgia although it can be used for any drug resistant or chronic neuropathic pain.^{96,97}

CONCLUSION

Disease or injury to peripheral or central nerves leads to release of various inflammatory mediators and modulation of ion channels all this collectively causes persistent neuropathic pain. The relief from pharmacological treatment in neuropathic pain is often insufficient and associated with multiple side effects, this lead to search for electrical neurostimulation devices. The stimulation techniques range from non-invasive procedures such as TENS, TAES to slightly invasive technique like PENS/PNT, and also include extremely invasive techniques such as DBS, SCS. A more profound study of the effect of various electrical stimulation patterns on the pain effect could lead to additional benefits with electrical neurostimulation therapies. Clinically drugs remain the mainstay in treatment of neuropathic pain and electroanalgesia is used only for treating drug resistant pain. Before initiating electrical neurostimulation the risk and benefits associated to it should be closely evaluated.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I thank I.T.S Paramedical College for providing me with all the facilities required in development of this review article.

REFERENCES

1. Merskey H and Bogduk N. Classification of chronic pain descriptions of chronic pain syndromes and definitions of pain terms. Seattle: IASP Press. 1994:212.
2. O'Connor AB. Neuropathic pain: a review of the quality of life impact,

- costs, and cost-effectiveness of therapy. *Pharmacoeconomics*. 2009;27:95-112.
3. Dworkin RH, Backonja M, Rowbotham MC, Allen RR, Argoff CR and Bennet. Advances in neuropathic pain, diagnosis mechanisms and treatment recommendations. *Arch neurology*. 2003;60:1524-1534.
 4. Meena S, Kumar A and Chauhan S. Possible involvement of nitric oxide mechanism in the protective effect of Melatonin against sciatic nerve ligation induced behavioral and biochemical alterations in rats. *Int J Drug Devlop and Res*. 2011;3:224-233.
 5. Echeverry S, Lee SH, T Lim, Zhang J and Rayegani SM (ed). Contribution of inflammation to chronic pain triggered by nerve injury and basic principles of peripheral nerve disorders. ISBN. 2012:978-953.
 6. Paul FW, Shitong Li and Jen WC. Electroanalgesia: It's Role in Acute and Chronic Pain Management. *Anesth analg medical intelligence*. 2001;92:505-513.
 7. Hansson P. Neuropathic pain: clinical characteristics and diagnostic workup. *Eur J Pain*. 2002;6:47-50.
 8. Galer BS and Jensen MP. Development and preliminary validation of a pain measure specific to neuropathic pain; the neuropathic pain scale. *Neurology*.1997;48:332-328.
 9. Cruccu G, Sommer C and Anand P. EFNS guidelines on neuropathic pain assessment: revised 2009. *Eur J Neurol*. 2010;17:1010-1018.
 10. Manning DC, Raja SN, Meyer RA and Campbell JN. Pain and hyperalgesia after intradermal injection of bradykinin in humans. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 1991;50:721-729.
 11. Cunha TM, Verri WA, Jr and Fukada SY. TNF-alpha and IL-1beta mediate inflammatory hypernociception in mice triggered by B1 but not B2 kinin receptor. *Eur J Pharmacol*. 2007;573:221-229.
 12. Turner DJ, Gupta K, Yang XX and Martin JG. Bradykinin-induced airway constriction in guinea-pigs role of leukotriene. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther*. 2000;13:181-188.
 13. Ferreira SH. Prostaglandins, aspirin-like drugs and analgesia. *Nat New Biol*.1972;240:200-203.
 14. Averbek B, Peisler M, Izydorczyk I and Reeh PW. Inflammatory mediators do not stimulate CGRP release if prostaglandin synthesis is blocked by S(+)-flurbiprofen in isolated rat skin. *Inflamm Res*. 2003;52:519-523.
 15. Levine JD, Lau W, Kwiat G and Goetzl EJ. Leukotriene B4 produces hyperalgesia that is dependent on polymorphonuclear leukocytes. *Science*. 1984;225:743-745.
 16. Bennett GJ. Neuroimmune interaction in painful peripheral neuropathy. *Clin J Pain*. 2000;16:139-143.
 17. Zieglgänsberger W, Berthele A and Tölle TR. Understanding neuropathic pain. *CNS Spectr*. 2005;10:298-308.
 18. Tal M. A role for inflammation in chronic pain. *Curr Rev Pain*.1999;3:440-446.
 19. Millan MJ. Serotonin (5-HT) and pain: A reappraisal of its role in the light of receptor multiplicity. *Seminars in Neuroscience*. 1995;7:409-419.
 20. Sommer C. Serotonin in pain and analgesia actions in the periphery. *Mol Neurobiol*. 2004;30:117-125.
 21. Abbott FV, Hong Y and Blier P. Activation of 5-HT2A receptors potentiates pain produced by inflammatory mediators. *Neuropharmacology*. 1996;35:99-110.
 22. Okamoto K, Imbe H and Morikawa Y. 5-HT2A receptor subtype in the peripheral branch of sensory fibers is involved in the potentiation of inflammatory pain in rats. *Pain*. 2002;99:133-143.
 23. McMahon SB, Philos T, Soc R and Lond B. NGF as a mediator of inflammatory pain. *Biol Sci*. 1996;351:431-440.
 24. Ciobanu C, Reid G and Babes A. Acute and chronic effects of neurotrophic factors BDNF and GDNF on responses mediated by thermo-sensitive TRP channels in cultured rat dorsal root ganglion neurones. *Brain Res*. 2009;1284:54-67.
 25. Pezet S and McMahon SB. Neurotrophins: mediators and

- modulators of pain. *Annu Rev Neurosci.* 2006;29:507-538.
26. Vizzard MA, Erdman SL and de Groat WC. Increased expression of neuronal nitric oxide synthase in dorsal root ganglion neurones after systemic capsaicin administration. *Neuroscience.* 1995;67:1-5.
 27. Zhang X, Verge V and Wiesenfeld HZ. Nitric oxide synthase-like immunoreactivity in lumbar dorsal root ganglia and spinal cord of rat and monkey and effect of peripheral axotomy. *J Comp Neurol.* 1993;335:563-575.
 28. Eberhardt M, Neeb L and Vogel E. Glyceroltrinitrate facilitates stimulated CGRP release but not gene expression of CGRP or its receptor components in rat trigeminal ganglia. *Neuropeptides.* 2009;43:483-489.
 29. Lawand NB, Willis WD and Westlund KN. Blockade of joint inflammation and secondary hyperalgesia by L-NAME, a nitric oxide synthase inhibitor. *Neuroreport.* 1997;8:895-899.
 30. Watkins, LR, Nguyen KT, Lee JE and Maier SF. Dynamic regulation of proinflammatory cytokines. *Adv Exp Med Bio.* 1999;461:153-178.
 31. Oprea A and Kress M. Involvement of the proinflammatory cytokines tumor necrosis factor- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 but not IL-8 in the development of heat hyperalgesia: effects on heat-evoked calcitonin gene-related peptide release from rat skin. *J Neurosci.* 2000;20:6289-6293.
 32. Dunlap K and Fischbach GD. Neurotransmitters decrease the calcium conductance activated by depolarization of embryonic chick sensory neurones. *J Physiol.* 1981;317:519-535.
 33. Bean BP. Neurotransmitter inhibition of neuronal calcium current by changes in channel voltage dependence. *Nature.* 1989; 340: 153-156.
 34. William AC, Joerg S, Terrance PS and Edward PR. Compendium of Voltage-Gated Ion Channels: Calcium Channels. *Pharmacol Rev.* 2003;55:579-581.
 35. Lai J, Hunter JC and Porreca F. The role of voltage-gated sodium channels in neuropathic pain. *Curr Opin Neurobiol.* 2003;13:291.
 36. Wood JN, Boorman JP, Okuse K and Baker MD. Voltage-gated sodium channels and pain pathways. *J Neurobiol.* 2004;61:55-71.
 37. Goldin AL, Barchi RL, Caldwell JH, Hofmann F, Howe JR, Hunter JC, Kallen RG, Mandel G, Meisler MH, Netter YB, Noda M, Tamkun MM, Waxman SG, Wood JN and Catterall WA. Nomenclature of voltage-gated sodium channels. *Neuron.* 2000;28:365-368.
 38. McMakin C. Microcurrent Treatment of Myofascial Pain in the Head, Neck and Face. *Top Clin Chiro.* 1998;5:29-35.
 39. Zieglgänsberger W, Berthele A and Tölle TR. Understanding neuropathic pain. *CNS Spectr.* 2005;10:298-308.
 40. Cheng N, Van Hoof H and Bockx E. The effect of electric current on ATP generation, protein synthesis, and membrane transport in rat skin. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1982;171:264-272.
 41. Rowbotham MC and Petersen KL. Zoster-associated pain and neural dysfunction. *Pain.* 2001;93:1-5.
 42. Finnerup NB, Otto M, McQuay HJ, Jensen TS and Sindrup SH. Algorithm for neuropathic pain treatment: an evidence based proposal. *Pain.* 2005;118:289-305.
 43. Backonja M, Beydoun A, Edwards KR, Schwartz SL, Fonseca V and Hes M. Gabapentin for the symptomatic treatment of painful neuropathy in patients with diabetes mellitus: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 1998;280:1831-1836.
 44. Rowbotham M, Harden N, Stacey B, Bernstein P and Magnus-Miller L. Gabapentin for the treatment of postherpetic neuralgia: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 1998;280:1837-18342.
 45. McClean GJ. Intravenous infusion of phenytoin relieves neuropathic pain a randomized, double blinded, placebo-controlled, crossover study. *Anesth Analg.* 1999;89:985-998.
 46. Meldrum BS. Update on the mechanism of action of antiepileptic drugs. *Epilepsia.* 1996;37:4-11.
 47. Max MB, Fields HL and Liebeskind JC. Antidepressants as analgesics. In *Progress in pain research and*

- therapy (ed). Seattle: IASP Press. 1994:229-246.
48. O'Connor AB and Dworkin RH. Treatment of neuropathic pain an overview of recent guidelines. *Am J Med.* 2009;122:22-32.
 49. Attal N, Cruccu G and Baron R. EFNS guidelines on the pharmacological treatment on neuropathic pain. *Eur J Neurol.* 2010;1:1468-1331.
 50. Galer BS, Rowbotham MC, Perander J and Friedman E. Topical lidocaine patch relieves postherpetic neuralgia more effectively than a vehicle topical patch: results of an enriched enrolment study. *Pain.* 1999;80:533-538.
 51. Rowbotham MC, Davies PS, Verkempinck C and Galer BS. Lidocaine patch double-blind controlled study of a new treatment method for postherpetic neuralgia. *Pain.* 1996;65:38-44.
 52. Baron R, Mayoral V, Leijon G, Binder A, Steigerwald I and Serpell M. 5% lidocaine medicated plaster versus pregabalin in post-herpetic neuralgia and diabetic polyneuropathy: an open-label, noninferiority two-stage RCT study. *Curr Med Res Opin.* 2009;25:1663-1687.
 53. O'Connor AB and Dworkin RH. Treatment of neuropathic pain: an overview of recent guidelines. *Am J Med.* 2009;122:22-32.
 54. Dworkin RH, O'Connor AB and Audette J. Recommendations for the pharmacological management of neuropathic pain: an overview and literature update. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2010;85:3-14.
 55. Norrbrink C and Lundeberg T. Tramadol in neuropathic pain after spinal cord injury: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Clin J Pain.* 2009;25:177-1784.
 56. Raja SN, Haythornthwaite JA and Pappagallo M. Opioids versus antidepressants in postherpetic neuralgia: a randomized, placebo controlled trial. *Neurology.* 2002;59:1015-1021.
 57. Rowbotham MC, Twilling L, Davies PS, Reisner L, Taylor K and Mohr D. Oral opioid therapy for chronic peripheral and central neuropathic pain. *N Engl J Med.* 2003;348:1223-1232.
 58. Ranoux D, Attal N, Morain F and Bouhassira D. Botulinum toxin type A induces direct analgesic effects in chronic neuropathic pain. *Ann Neurol.* 2008;64:274-283.
 59. Yuan RY, Sheu JJ and Yu JM. Botulinum toxin for diabetic neuropathic pain: a randomized double-blind crossover trial. *Neurology.* 2009;72:1473-1478.
 60. Ranoux D. Botulinum toxin and painful peripheral neuropathies: what should be expected *Rev Neurol.* 2011;167: 46-50.
 61. Yuan RY, Sheu JJ, Yu JM, Chen WT, Tseng IJ, Chang HH and Hu CJ. Botulinum toxin for diabetic neuropathic pain: a randomized double-blind crossover trial. *Neurology.* 2009;72:1473-1478.
 62. Abdel-Salam OM, Baiuomy AR, Elbatran S and Arbid MS. Evaluation of the anti-inflammatory, antinociceptive and gastric effects of Ginkgo biloba in the rat. *Phcological Resrch.* 2004;49:133-142.
 63. Biddlestone L, Corbett AD and Dolan S. Oral administration of Ginkgo biloba extract, EGb-761 inhibits thermal hyperalgesia in rodent models of inflammatory and post-surgical pain. *Brit Journal of phcology.* 2007;151:285-289.
 64. Choi SJ, Kim TH, Shin YK, Lee CS, Park M, Lee HS and Song JH. Effects of a polyacetylene from Panax ginseng on Na⁺ currents in rat dorsal root ganglion neurons. *Brain Resrch.* 2008;1191:75-83.
 65. Haque R, Bin-Hafez B, Ahmad I, Parvez S, Pandey S and Raisuddin S. Protective effect of *Embllica officinalis* Gaertn in cyclophosphamide-treated mice. *Humn and Experiment Tox.* 2001;20:643-650.
 66. Yin X, Zhang Y, Wu H, Zhu X, Zheng X, Jiang S, Zhuo H, Shen J, Li L and Qiu J. Protective effects of Astragalus saponin I on early stage of diabetic nephropathy in rats. *Jrnal of Phcological Science.* 2004;95:256-266.
 67. Pertwee RG. Cannabinoid receptors and pain. *Prog Neurobiol.* 2001;63:569-611.
 68. Bridges D, Ahmad K and Rice AS. The synthetic cannabinoid WIN55, 212-2 attenuates hyperalgesia and allodynia in a rat model of

- neuropathic pain. *Br J Pharmacol.* 2001;133:586-594.
69. Nolano M, Simone DA, Wendelschafer-Crabb G, Johnson T, Hazen E and Kennedy WR. Topical capsaicin in humans: parallel loss of epidermal nerve fibres and pain sensation. *Pain.* 1999;81:135-145.
 70. Bravo L. Polyphenols: chemistry, dietary sources, metabolism and nutritional significance. *Nutr Rev.* 1998;56:317-333.
 71. Paul F. White, Shitong Li, and Jen W. Chiu. Electroanalgesia: It's Role in Acute and Chronic Pain Management. *Anesth analg medical intelligence.* 2001;92:505-513.
 72. Meyerson BA, Herregods P, Linderoth B and Ren B. An experimental animal model of spinal cord stimulation for pain. *Stereotact Funct Neurosurg.* 1994;62:256-262.
 73. Holsheimer J. Which neuronal elements are activated directly by spinal cord stimulation. *Neuromodulation.* 2002;5:25-31.
 74. Heath RG, Mickle WA, Ramey ER and O'Doherty DS. Evaluation of seven years experience with depth electrode studies in human patients in *Electrical Studies on the Unanesthetized Brain* (ed), New York. 1960:214-247.
 75. Melzack R and Wall PD. Pain mechanisms: a new theory. *Science.* 1965;150:971-979.
 76. Nashold BS Jr and Friedman H. Dorsal column stimulation for control of pain. Preliminary report on 30 patients. *J Neurosurg.* 1972;36:590-597.
 77. Hosobuchi Y, Adams, JE and Rutkin B. Chronic thalamic stimulation for the control of facial anesthesia dolorosa. *Arch Neurol.* 1973;29:158-161.
 78. Adams JE, Hosobuchi Y and Fields HL. Stimulation of internal capsule for relief of chronic pain. *J Neurosurg.* 1974;41:740-744.
 79. Richardson DE and Akil H. Long term results of periventricular gray self-stimulation. *J Neurosurg.* 1977;1:199-202.
 80. Wall PD and Sweet WH. Temporary abolition of pain in man. *Science.* 1967;155:108-109.
 81. Campbell JN and Long DM. Peripheral nerve stimulation in the treatment of intractable pain. *J Neurosurg.* 1976;45:692-629.
 82. North RB, Fischell TA and Long DM. Chronic stimulation via percutaneously inserted epidural electrodes. *Neurosurgery.* 1977;1:215-218.
 83. Ahmed HE, Craig WF, White PF and Huber P. Percutaneous electrical nerve stimulation (PENS): a complementary therapy for the management of pain secondary to bony metastasis. *Clin J Pain.* 1998;14:320-323.
 84. Ahmed HE, Craig WF and White PF. Percutaneous electrical nerve stimulation: an alternative to antiviral drugs for acute herpes zoster. *Anesth Analg.* 1998;87:911-914.
 85. Ghoname EA, Craig WF and White PF. Percutaneous electrical nerve stimulation for low back pain: a randomized crossover study. *JAMA.* 1999;281:818-823.
 86. Ghoname EA, White PF, Ahmed HE et al. Percutaneous electrical nerve stimulation (PENS): an alternative to TENS in the management of sciatica. *Pain.* 1999;83:193-199.
 87. Ahmed HE, White PF and Craig WF. Use of percutaneous electrical nerve stimulation (PENS) in the short-term management of headaches. *Headache.* 2000;40:311-315.
 88. Hamza MA, White PF and Craig WF. Percutaneous electrical nerve stimulation (PENS): a novel analgesic therapy for diabetic neuropathic pain. *Diabetes Care.* 2000;23:365-370.
 89. Han JS, Chen XH and Sun SL. Effect of low- and high-frequency TENS on Met-enkephalin-Arg-Phe and dynorphin A immunoreactivity in human lumbar CSF. *Pain* 1991;47:295-298.
 90. Wang BG, Tang J and White PF. Effect of the intensity of transcutaneous acupoint electrical stimulation on the postoperative analgesic requirement. *Anesth Analg.* 1997;85:406-413.
 91. Ali J, Yaffe CS and Serrette C. The effect of transcutaneous electric nerve stimulation on postoperative pain and pulmonary function. *Surgery.* 1981;89:507-512.
 92. Goats GC. Interferential current therapy. *Br J Sports Med.* 1990;24:87-92.

93. McDowell BC, Lowe AS and Walsh DM. The effect of H-wave therapy upon conduction in the human superficial radial nerve in vivo. *Exp Physiol.*1996;5:821-832.
94. Julka IS, Alvaro M and Kumar D. Beneficial effects of electrical stimulation on neuropathic symptoms in diabetes patients. *J Foot Ankle Surg.* 1998;37:191- 194.
95. Danziger N, Rozenberg S and Bourgeois P. Depressive effect of segmental and heterotopic application of transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation and piezo-electric current in lower limb nociceptive flexion reflex in human subjects. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil.* 1998;79:191-200.
96. Garcia-Larrea L, Peyron R and Mertens P. Electrical stimulation of motor cortex for pain control: a combined PET-scan and electrophysiological study. *Pain.* 1999;83:259-273.
97. Meyerson BA, Lindblom U, Lind G and Herregodts P. Motor cortex stimulation as treatment of trigeminal neuropathic pain. *Acta Neurochir. Suppl.*1993;58:150-153.